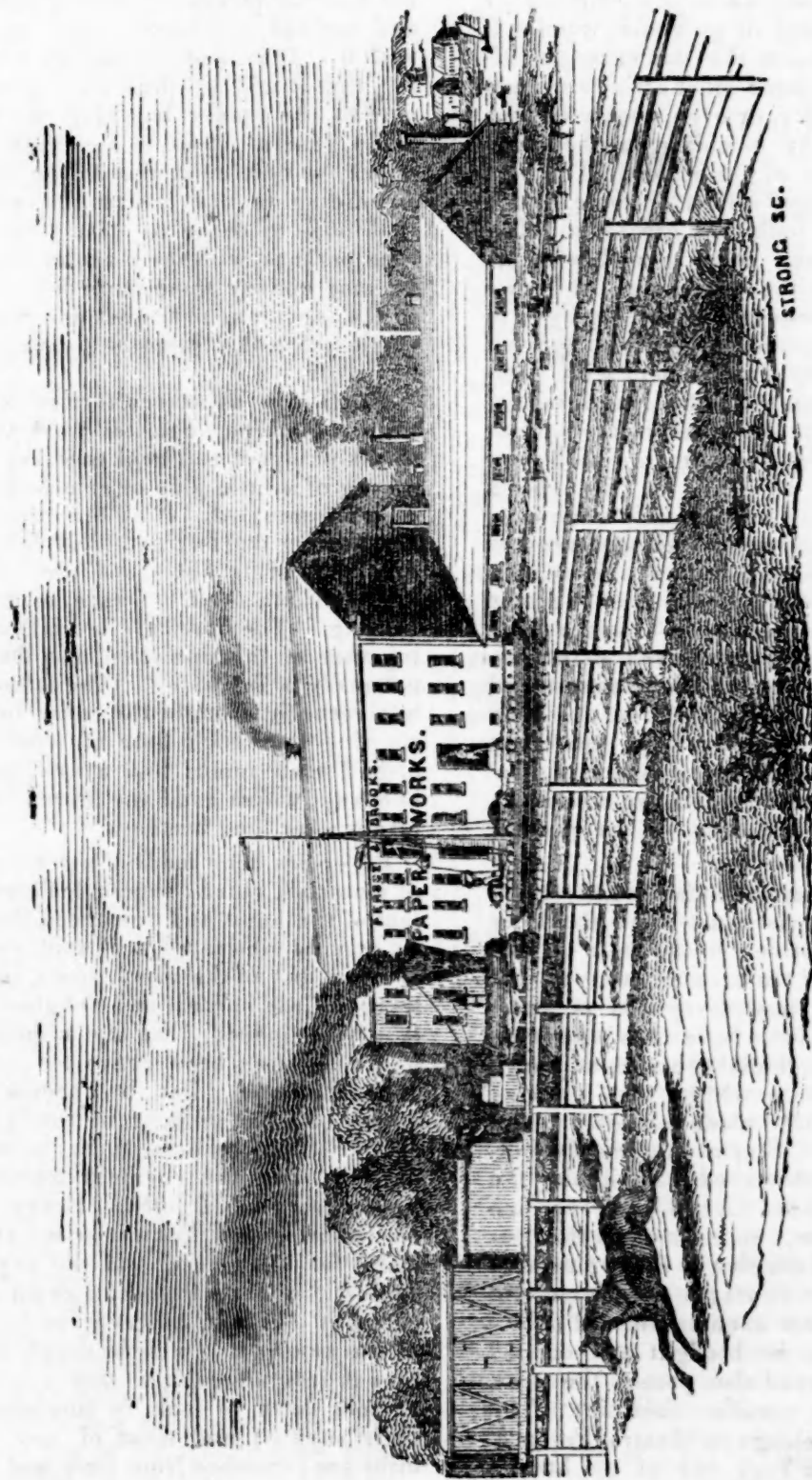


DWIGHT'S AMERICAN MAGAZINE, AND FAMILY NEWSPAPER.

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A PAPER MANUFACTORY.

Buildings of such size, for the making of paper, would strike with astonishment the people of most countries. They are a natural and necessary class of buildings to us, who have so many books and newspapers. Yet we are sometimes surprised when we meet with striking evidence of something which we before believed or knew; and many of us would wonder if we should witness the immense quantities of this or some other articles of manufacture, yearly, or even weekly thrown out by our busy machines, in obedience to the demands of our people. The time may come when a man of taste, and a Christian, may look with greater satisfaction on this and other branches of art subservient to the mind: but, while we admire the science and skill displayed in the invention, construction and application of machinery, and reflect with pleasure on the general diffusion of education, and believe that some of the noblest truths and holiest sentiments will soon be impressed on some of the sheets spread before us, and laid before the eyes of our countrymen, for their pleasure and profit, we have the pain to anticipate, that a large part of the material is to be worse than wasted, by receiving a stamp from the false, degrading and even detestable characters of some of the meanest and worst men on the face of the earth! How discouraging to think of the numerous impediments to private happiness and national improvement, which are created by the prevailing bad taste of the present day!

The large paper-manufactory represented in our print, is situated on the bank of Connecticut river, in the state of that name, at one of the several points on that stream where boat-navigation is interrupted by rapids or little falls, and continued by an artificial channel, or canal, with locks. It is within the limits of Windsor; and the place is known as the Windsor Locks. Steamboats, and flat-bottomed boats, those used in navigating the Connecticut, from Hartford far up into New Hampshire, can come up to this manufactory, and receive or deliver articles directly at the doors: a very important advantage, where such an amount of bulky goods is to be brought and carried away. A railroad also passes the spot, and affords it peculiar facilities. The manufactory belongs to Messrs. Persse & Brooks, of New York, one of the houses

dealing in paper, which forms a large and respectable branch of among the various producing and commercial classes of this city.

The waters of the Connecticut not only afford to this manufactory the facilities for transportation above alluded to, but also the power for moving the heavy and various machinery kept at work within. This is of so complex a character, that it will be difficult to communicate to the reader anything more than some general ideas, in the short space which we now must allot to the subject. According to our custom, however, we shall hope to recur to it in future; and then perhaps, with the aid of illustrations, we may convey some more definite ideas of the ingenious processes and machines employed in this important branch of manufacture.

Paper is a substance formed of small vegetable fibres, deposited from water in sheets or layers, and held together by the drying of a little glue or gum with which they are mingled. It differs from cloth in not being woven; and from felt in the difference of its fibres, and the cause of its cohesion. Felt is made of wool by beating. The fibres are brought closely together by this operation, and then cannot easily be separated. The microscope has recently brought the cause to light, showing that each fibre of wool is furnished with teeth, like a saw, pointing one way, which hold the fibres in their places after long beating.

Paper has been made of a great variety of materials, chiefly vegetable fibres; and that of the finest and most beautiful quality may be fabricated, it is said, not only of straw, but of the wood, roots, bark and leaves of the hardest and roughest trees. It is said, indeed, that the clippings of iron-wire have been converted into paper in England. But the expense of reducing to a fine pulp, or of purifying or of bleaching, renders most substances useless; and the cheapest material in this country is old linen. Hence, as every housekeeper knows, arises the demand for linen rags, and the argument against the waste even of a shred of any garment. Cotton, however, is far more in use among us; and the supply of linen rags is insignificant: so that our paper-makers have to look to foreigners for their supply; and most of our paper-mills are furnished from Italy and Sicily.

To those who have seen the multitudes of poor whose old clothing thus finds its way to our printing offices and bookshelves, the association of ideas may not be the most pleasing. It would be well if our intellectual and moral imports were as thoroughly cleansed before they come before the eyes of the public.

Rags are brought to New York and other ports in large bales, and sold at about a penny a pound. They are soon thrown into a large receiver in a manufactory, exposed to water and a complex cutting machine, which cuts and tears them in thousands of pieces. Sand, dust and other impurities are effectually separated and taken away by the water; and then certain chemical substances are added, chiefly chloride of lime, by which the color is taken out, and the mass whitened. This process, however, is not resorted to in making brown paper, or other coarse wrapping-paper. These usually retain the color of the refuse hemp, tow or straw of which they are made.

Much of the labor in paper making was formerly done by hand; and the most fatiguing as well as delicate and difficult part was that of forming the sheets. After the rags had been carefully sorted, washed, torn, cut and carded, till they were reduced almost to invisible particles, men stood by the tubs containing the pulp, which is about as thin as gruel, and dipped into it square frames holding wire gauze stretched across, of the proper size and fineness for the sort of paper to be made. These were dipped into the fluid, lifted out horizontally, and held till the water had partly drained off. The frame was then inverted, and the film of pulp laid upon a blanket, and covered with another blanket by an attendant. This operation was repeated, until a heap was raised, which was squeezed down by a press, by which the paper was rendered both drier and firmer; and then the sheets were hung upon strings or rods to complete the drying, while some of the finer kinds of paper were hot-pressed. But various circumstances were apt to vary the quality of paper, even when made of the same materials. A change of workmen, less attention at one time than at another, or something else, often interfered with that uniformity which is so essential to a handsome book.

But all parts of the manufacture have been rendered much easier, more rapid

and more successful, by various improvements since devised. The preparation of the rags and making of the pulp however, are less observable and less interesting to a spectator, than the machinery applied after the pulp has been prepared, and the pleasing and surprising effects which it produces. These latter operations are not performed in tubs, nor are the machines shut up in boxes, but brought to light and spread out before the eye. The first thing the observer sees of this part of the operation, is a wide and shallow stream, like milk, slowly flowing over a fine net work of wire, laid flat, and moved forward by two cylinders, round which it is extended. This fluid is the pulp, which forms a thin coat upon the net work, the water draining off through the wire, and leaving a delicate sheet, barely strong enough to be drawn off at some distance between two cylinders, which press it, and deliver it to another cylinder, hollow and warmed by steam, by which it is dried.

ICE PRODUCED BY A RED HOT PROCESS.—A platina crucible is made and maintained red hot over a large spirit lamp. Some sulphurous acid is poured into it. This acid, though, at common temperatures one of the most volatile of known bodies, possesses the singular property of remaining fixed in the red hot crucible, and not a drop of it evaporates; in fact, it is not in contact with the crucible, but has an atmosphere of its own interposed. A few drops of water are now added to the sulphurous acid in the red hot crucible. The diluted acid gets into immediate contact with the heated metal—instantly flashes off, and such is the rapidity and energy of the evaporation, that the water remains behind, and is found ‘frozen into a lump of ice in a red hot crucible!’ from which, seizing the moment before it again melts, it may be thrown out before the eyes of the astonished observer!

This is, indeed, a ‘a piece of natural magic.’ It is certainly one of the most singularly beautiful experiments imaginable. It was recently devised by M. Provostayae, of France, to illustrate the repellent power of heat radiating from bodies at a high temperature, and of the rapid abstraction of heat produced by evaporation.—SEL.

Have the courage to take a good paper, and pay for it in advance.—SEL.

French Learned Societies.

1. The Institute, or Royal Academy. Created in 1795. It originally consisted of three academies. It was re-constituted in 1803, and divided into four great classes, which are, in effect, so many distinct Societies. They are,

1. The Royal Academy of Sciences. This is composed of eleven sections, embracing 62 members: viz. Geometry, 6 members; Mechanics, 6; Astronomy, 6; Geography and Navigation, 3; Philosophy, 6; Chemistry, 6; Mineralogy, 6; Botany, 6; Rural Economy and the Veterinary Art, 6; Anatomy and Zoology, 6; Medicine and Surgery, 6. This academy distributes prizes on Statistics, Experimental Philosophy and Mechanics; for improvements, and useful works or discoveries made in the course of the year. This Academy holds its sittings every Monday, from three to five.

2. Sometimes called the Ancient French Academy. It has 40 members, who are employed on French literature, and the French language. It is charged with the compilation of a dictionary in the French language, and the examination of literary and historical works. This academy disposes of an annual prize of 1500 francs, for the best production on a subject proposed the preceding year, and other prizes, one for the work most useful to public morals. It sits every Thursday, from half-past two till half-past four.

3. The Royal Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres. This has 40 members, eight associates and sixty correspondents. It meets every Wednesday, and distributes an annual prize of 1500 francs.

4. The Royal Academy of the Fine Arts. This has also 40 members, and is divided into five sections; viz. Painting, 14 members; Sculpture, 8; Architecture, 8; Engraving, 4; Musical Composition, 6. They meet weekly.

Each academy has its own regulations, and its own Secretary. The first has two Secretaries. Each academy is perfectly independent of the other; but the hall, the agency, the Secretary's office, the library, &c., are common to the whole. The interests and the funds, common to the four, are managed by a Committee formed of two members from each, presided by the Minister of the Interior. Each academy ballots to fill its own vacancies, and the choice is submitted to

the approbation of the king. Members of one academy are eligible to the others, and each member receives a salary of 1500 francs. The united public meeting of the four academies takes place annually on the first of May.

This institution was established during the reign of Louis XIV, and is composed of the most distinguished philosophers, literary characters, and artists of France, and corresponds with the learned of every nation. These academies have acquired great reputation, and have exerted a powerful influence on French and European literature and science.

2. The Athenæum of Arts. Instituted in 1792. It embraces in its objects, every literary and scientific topic, but its principal object is the encouragement of the Arts and Manufactures. It has been said, that no institution has more benefited Society, or acquired a higher, or better deserved reputation.

It is divided into six classes; Literature and Political economy; the Pleasing and Fine Arts; Mathematics and Physics, which come under consideration on different appointed days.

3. The Athenæum of Paris. This embraces the most eminent men in every department of science. It was instituted in 1784, and the distinguished and learned lecturers, who have been connected with it, have given it great celebrity. The library, the cabinets of Natural History, Mineralogy and Chemistry, are valuable. It is supported by annual subscriptions of 120 francs.

4. The Society for the encouragement of National Industry. Founded in 1802. The object is the melioration of every branch of French industry. It is formed of an unlimited number of members, who pay an annual subscription of 36 francs. Among its members are most of the ministers of State, many public functionaries, the first men of property, and many of the most celebrated literary characters. It publishes, yearly, a bulletin, distributed exclusively to the members of the Society, containing notices of improvements made in France and foreign countries. The Society meets semi-annually, and the council, who manage it, once a fortnight. The prizes announced for 1834, amounted to more than 70,000 francs.

5. The Royal and Central Society of Agriculture. Established 1761. The ob-

ject is the improvement of the different branches of rural and domestic economy. It is the central point of correspondence for the agricultural Societies of the kingdom. There are 40 ordinary, 24 free, and 12 foreign associates, with an unlimited number of native and foreign correspondents. Meetings are held twice a month. The king is the patron.

6. The French Society of Universal Statistics. Founded in 1829, to aid the progress of Statistics and the development of every branch of human knowledge. It is composed of Titular, Honorary, and Corresponding members. Titular members pay 300 francs, or 30 francs annually. Honorary members pay 150, or 15 annually. Corresponding members purchase a diploma, which costs 25 francs. The Society publishes a monthly journal, and a collection of memoirs, which are distributed gratuitously to the Titular and Honorary members. Prizes of gold, silver and bronze medals are distributed annually to authors of works entitled to distinction, which are printed at the expense of the Society.

7. The Athenæum of Foreigners. Formed for the prosecution of every branch of science and literature, and in every language.

8. The Horticultural Society. Established in 1827, to promote the improvement of kitchen and pleasure gardens, the cultivation of fruit trees, plants and vegetables, destined for food, roots susceptible of employment in the arts, etc. It publishes a monthly journal, distributed gratis to members. The annual subscription of members is 30 francs.

9. The Geographical Society. This consists of an indefinite number of members, who pay 25 francs entry, and an annual subscription of 36 francs. It publishes, monthly, a Geographical bulletin, gratis to members; and a collection of memoirs, which they may procure at half-price, all aiming at the promotion of Geographical Knowledge.

10. The National Education Society. This Society is engaged in the perfecting every branch of instruction, and meditates a complete system of national public education. To this end it has established an 'orthomathique' school. Members pay 25 francs per annum, and receive gratis a bulletin and journal of education.

11. The Asiatic Society; for the encouragement of the Asiatic languages.

The minimum subscription of members is 30 francs, which entitles them to a copy of the "Journal Antique," published every month, and to the privilege of purchasing, at cost price, the works printed by the Society.

12. The Society for the formation and improvement of elementary Schools in France. Subscription of members 25 francs per annum, and entitles the subscriber to receive the monthly publications of the Society.

13. The Royal Academical Society of Science. Devoted to the improvement of the Sciences, Arts and Literature, and embraces many of the most distinguished literati of France.

14. The Society of Belles Lettres.

15. The Society of the Institution, &c. &c.—*Rep. Am. So. Dif. Knowl.*

THE YOUNG MECHANIC.—In this country, the industrious mechanic is as honorable and as worthy of honor as the professional men. Upon him depends, as one of the largest classes in all business communities, the task, mainly, of protecting and preserving the institutions of his country. There is no barrier to his access to the highest stations. He can compete, and successfully compete, with any opponent. He can strive for, and win too, the wreath with which science and literature and learning adorn the names of their votaries. Why, then, should not the young mechanic, pursuing the noiseless tenor of his way, learn in his workshop to place a proper value upon his character, and all those principles which, combined, constitute that character? Why should he yield to others in early forming his mind after the brightest models? He has illustrious examples of what can be accomplished by talent and virtue. He knows that Roger Sherman was a shoemaker's apprentice; that Nathaniel Green was a blacksmith's apprentice; that Arkwright was a barber's apprentice; that Rittenhouse was a watchmaker's apprentice; that Franklin was a printer's apprentice.

And, with these men in his recollection, and the remembrance of what they did for themselves and for their country, he need not suffer his honorable ambition to excel in those traits which distinguished them, to be depressed or extinguished.—SEL.

Great Dutch Canal.

We believe very little is known of this canal. It is, however, one of the greatest works of the kind in the world; and our readers will perhaps think the following details respecting it interesting. They are derived from the engraved plans, with which we have been obligingly furnished by W. Bald, Esq. an eminent scientific engineer.

The object of the canal is to afford a passage for large vessels from Amsterdam to the sea. This city has 40 feet of water in the road in front of its port, but the Pampas or bar in the Zuyder Zee, 7 miles below, has only a depth of 10 feet, and hence all ships of any considerable burden, have to unload part of their cargoes with lighters before they can enter the port. As the sea in question is full of shallows throughout, all ordinary means of improving the access to the port were necessarily ineffectual; and the resolution was therefore at length adopted of cutting a canal from the town to the Helder, the northernmost point of Holland. The distance between these extreme points is 41 English miles, but the length of the canal is 50 1/2. The breadth at the surface of the water is 124 1/2 English feet (120 Rhinland feet); the breadth at bottom 36; the depth 20 feet 9 inches. Like the Dutch Canals generally, its level is that of the high tides of the sea, from which it receives its supply of water. The only locks it requires, of course, are two tide locks at the extremities; but there are besides, two sluices with flood gates in the intermediate space. It has only 18 bridges (draw bridges) in its whole length. The locks and sluices are double, that is to say, there are two in the breadth of the canal; and we learn from Mr. Bald, that their construction and workmanship are excellent. They are built of brick for economy, but bands of limestone are interposed at intervals, and these project about an inch beyond the brick, to protect it from abrasion by the sides of the vessels. There is a broad towing path on each side, and the canal is wide enough to admit of one frigate passing another.

The line which the canal follows may be easily traced on a map of Holland. From the river Ye, at Amsterdam, it proceeds north to Purmerend, thence west to Alkmaar Lake; thence north by Alkmaar, to a point within two miles of the

coast, near Petten, and it continues to run nearly parallel to the coast from this point to Helder, where it joins the sea, at the fine harbor of Nieuwediep, formed within the last thirty years. At the latter place there is a powerful steam engine, for supplying the canal with water during the neap tides, and other purposes. The time spent in tracking vessels from the Helder to Amsterdam is 18 hours. The Helder point is the only spot on the shores of Holland that has deep water; and it owes this advantage to the island of Texel opposite, which by contracting the communication between the German Ocean and the Zuyder Zee to the breadth of a mile, produces a current which scours and deepens the channel. Immediately opposite the Helder there is 100 feet of water at the high tides, and at the shallowest part of the bar to the westward there are 27 feet. In the same way, the artificial mound which runs into the lake or river Ye, opposite Amsterdam, by contracting the water way to about 1000 feet, keeps a depth of 40 feet in the port at high water, while above and below there is only 11 or 12.

The canal was begun in 1819, and finished in 1825. The cost was estimated at ten or twelve millions of florins, or about one million sterling. If we compute the magnitude of this canal by the cubic contents of its bed, it is the greatest we believe in the world—unless some of the Chinese canals be exceptions. The volume of water which it contains when filled, or the 'prism de remplissage,' is twice as great as that of the N. Y. canal or the canal of Languedoc, and two and a half times as great as that of the Caledonian canal, if we include only those parts of the latter which have been cut with human labor. We have not heard what returns it yields; but we may safely assume that for some years it will not be a profitable concern. Even in Holland, where interest is low, it would require tolls to the amount of £50,000 per annum to cover interest and expenses. We find from the 'Bulletin des Sciences,' that 1,952 ships entered the port of Amsterdam in 1827. Most of the small ones would probably take the old route by the Zuyder Zee, but supposing one thousand to have gone through the canal, it would be necessary that they should pay £50 each of toll for passing and returning, to make up the sum we mentioned.—SEL.

Terror of Oxen at a Lion.—We were often exposed to danger from lions, which, from the scarcity of water, frequent the pools or fountains, and some of our number had some hair-breadth escapes. One night we were quietly bivouacked at a small pool on the 'Oup River, where we never anticipated a visit from his majesty. We had just closed our united evening worship, the book was still in my hand, and the closing notes of the song of praise had scarcely fallen from our lips, when the terrific roar of the lion was heard; our oxen, which before were quietly chewing the cud, rushed upon us, and over our fires, leaving us prostrated in a cloud of dust and sand. Hats and Hymn books, our Bible and our guns were all scattered in wild confusion. Providentially, no serious injury was sustained; the oxen were pursued, brought back, and secured to the wagon, for we could ill-afford to loose any. Africaner, seeing the reluctance of the people to pursue in a dark and gloomy ravine, grasped a firebrand, and exclaimed, "follow me!" and but for this promptness and intrepidity we must have lost some of our number, for nothing can exceed the terror of oxen at even the smell of a lion. Though they may happen to be in the worst condition possible, worn out with fatigue and hunger, the moment the shaggy monster is perceived, they start like race-horses, with their tails erect, and sometimes days will elapse before they are found. The number of lions may be easily accounted for, when it is remembered how thinly scattered the inhabitants are, and, indeed, the whole appearance of the country impresses the mind with the idea that it is only fit for beasts of prey. The people seem to drag out a miserable existence, wandering from place to place in quest of grass, game, or wild roots. Those I had met with had, from infancy, been living a nomade life, with one great object in view, to keep soul and body together.

"A region of drought, where no river glides,
Nor rippling brook with osiered sides;
Where sedgy pool, nor bubbling fount,
Nor tree, nor cloud, nor misty mount
Appears to refresh the aching eye;
But barren earth, and burning sky,
And blank horizon round and round
Spread—void of living sight or sound."—SEL.

An irresolute Christian is like a ship without a rudder.—SEL.

Old Times in Massachusetts.

"1632. *First Water Mill.*—Stephen Dean was allowed to set up water works to beat out corn; afterwards he was allowed to erect a grinding mill, but to surrender up his beating mill. This mill was erected near Billington sea, where he had a house."

Now no one can ascertain from this, whether the beating mill was built this year, or whether the grant only was made. Indeed, we are not certain of the grant this year, for as the month and day are not mentioned, the record might have been found under the general date of 1632, and yet have really been in 1633, as the year then commenced in March. Nor can we learn whether the grinding mill, which was built 'afterwards,' was before or after the first in Massachusetts colony, at Dorchester, in the spring of 1633, or the second at Lynn, in the summer of the same year.

We are told that "the first free school in New England, ordained by law, was established in Plymouth in 1671." Now we know from the town Records, that a "Free Schoolmaster" was maintained in Boston in 1636. Mr. Phillips says that there was a Free School at Salem as early as that year. A petition in the state papers informs us, that a school was 'set up in Ipswich in the year 1635,' which was kept by the celebrated Ezekiel Cheever. In 1647, the court ordered that 'every town,' containing 50 families, should have a school; and in 1658, Newbury was fined for not keeping theirs open. In 1660, a free school was kept in Haverhill, by Thomas Wasse.—SEL.

GREEK FISH.—The Bosphorus swarms with myriads of the finny tribe, the most ordinary of which are the 'scombri,' a species of mackerels which are dried without salt, by the Greeks; 'palamedes' and 'stavidrea,' two species of dolphins; and 'anchovies' and 'nilufer,' which latter are caught by torch-light on their migration from the Black into the White Sea, during the autumn, when the Greek women, each provided with a boat and torch, pass the whole night upon the water, fascinating nilufer into their nets by means of its impetuous dash at the treacherous blaze. To the turbot, roach, and lamprey, we have yet to add that monarch of the table, the sword fish, which is caught along the shore in wooden cells on which the fisherman will sit for hours.



SOVEREIGNS OF EUROPE.

We have here the heads of several of the living and late sovereigns of Europe; and the sight will doubtless raise different reflections in the minds of different observers. We have been often struck with a few important ideas, which ought to be borne in mind by readers of history; and one of these is, that there is danger of confining our attention too much to the kings and queens, rulers, generals, &c., in reading of ancient or modern times. Their interests, as well as their actions, and characters are made very prominent in books of history; and naturally enough, when we consider that they were not only the leaders in war, and the chiefs in government, but also, in many cases, the directors of historians and the patrons of poets who praised them. But we should remember, that there are other persons involved in every historical event, other interests to be kept in mind. We should exercise a sound judgment, when reading of every change in the condition of a people, and also guard ourselves against that childish infatuation, which leads so many men to speak of a reign or an administration as creditable or disgraceful, merely from the display which it afforded of the talents or the incapacity of a single individual.

A few years ago a system of historical instruction was extensively adopted in some parts of Europe, invented by a Polish teacher, which was reported to have produced great effects in schools, by

training the pupils to an intimate knowledge of chronology.

We found, on examination, that it was merely a bald mnemonic method of impressing upon the minds of beginners the epochs of the reigns of Popes, calling "St Peter" the first, with Romish ideas of the condition of the world. Emperors and kings were so represented as to appear subordinate; while the people, were hardly spoken of whose immense interests are after all the only grand and proper objects worthy of attention in the study of history, aside from the Providence of God. The "king of kings and Lord of Lords" is indeed here, as in every other branch of learning, the ultimate object, to be ever kept in view: and how far are they from using history aright, who lose sight not only of Him, but of the multitudes of the nations, in fixing their eyes chiefly on the few individuals who from time to time exercise a wide control over them!

The names, epochs and acts of monarchs are indeed important to be known and remembered, but never as an ultimate object: always on account of their relations to their own people, or of their nations and times. We apprehend that there is peculiar danger at the present day, of adopting superficial and erroneous views of history, when so much time is devoted to more frivolous and hurtful reading. Of the few who read history, a large proportion, there is reason to fear, content themselves with mere outlines; and, after reading a little of kings and conquerors, turn away ignorant of the great departments of religion, science, literature, and in short all those grand details which render the outlines worth knowing. Turning for a moment to the heads of sovereigns above given—of what real importance would it be to any of us to know only the names, and dates of all of these, even with their titles, descent and lines of ancestors? Whoever knows anything of their times, also knows that there were many of their contemporaries more estimable and more useful than themselves; and that the interests of religion, sciences and arts were of far greater importance than anything confined to their own persons, families or dynasties. A few years since we saw an announcement of a work, on the history of 'men,' in contradistinction to the histories of kings. [To be Continued.]



A KENTUCKY WAGON.

This large, strong and heavy vehicle is as characteristic an object on the great roads of our western states, as a railroad car is now on our most improved routes. Though here drawn by oxen, and on its way to Louisville, laden with articles for the market, this sort of waggon is usually seen with horses attached; and it has long been the chief means of transport to extensive regions, especially in hilly and mountainous parts of our country. In proportion to the length of inland journeys to be performed, and the lightness of the goods, should naturally be in some degree proportioned the form, strength and size of the vehicle: but the state of the arts, and the condition of society in other respects, have necessarily a considerable influence.

Although coasting-vessels and canals on the one hand, and small waggons, carts, and rail-cars on the other, are used in our older states for the transport of great quantities of produce to market, and of the various goods exchanged for them, large waggons, some of them rivalling that depicted above, are still seen, even in some of our eastern villages, periodically departing and returning, with their heterogeneous loads; and, as population extends and increases in the west, new roads are annually made, extending the range of these lumbering carriages.

The attentive comparison of the vehi-

cles of different countries and ages is worthy of a well informed and contemplative mind. Many points of consideration are suggested, in some way relating to the state of society, or the history of the people. But we need not go beyond our own limits to find specimens in great variety, or examples of both extremes. While we are drawn, with more than the speed of a common wind, from Boston to New York and even to almost Philadelphia, between the rising and the setting of the sun, with heavy baggage-trains! or lolling on a couch, or sleeping as in a bed, in a splendid steamboat, or, if awake, reading, undisturbed, a favorite author in a splendid saloon, some of our countrymen are rolling over the plains in primitive stage-waggons, or climbing mountains on foot, to relieve the horses, still condemned to drag them. Not only so, but, while thousands of tons are still carried in the Conestoga wagon," (as the vehicle above represented was named by the Pennsylvanians,) considerable portions of the tobacco crop have been annually brought to market in hogsheads, each fitted with a rude apparatus to be drawn by a horse, rolling all the way on the ground, while a negro sits on a board laid across the shafts to preside over this triumphal car. Turning our eyes to other parts of our extensive and various territory, "Lo, the poor Indian "woman,

bending under the burthen! Not only an infant fastened to her back, but often a load of household articles, or the house itself, toiling, as in times of the deepest barbarism, the uncomplaining slave of the stronger sex.

There is no country in the world in which the number and excellence of carriages bears such strong evidence of a high state of civilization as our own. Those of our countrymen who have travelled in any part of Europe must have found reason to reflect on our superior advancements in this branch of improvement. We do not speak of the elegance of coaches or chariots, but of the number, convenience and excellence of carriages of different kinds for the people, in the construction of which our mechanics are exceedingly adept, and to the use of which we are all so much accustomed, that we regard them as among the matters of course, until we find ourselves in places where they are not to be obtained.

LORD JOHN RUSSELL'S REMARKS UPON AMERICAN LIBERALITY.—The Lord Mayor gave a sumptuous entertainment to her Majesty's Ministers and their ladies on the 12th of May, at the Mansion House. After the usual toasts were disposed of, the Lord Mayor proposed the health of Lord John Russell, the Premier of England. The Premier replied at some length. He spoke of the present difficulties that surrounded the government, and the measures which had been proposed and carried out for the relief of the suffering people of Ireland and Scotland. He then spoke of the sympathy and benevolence which had been called forth, not only in England, but in that distant land—the United States. I will quote the Premier's own words. He said:

"But this spirit of charity and benevolence has not been confined within this city or within the limits of the United Kingdom. I am happy to say, that day by day we receive the intelligence that those who sprang from the same origin with ourselves have a fellow feeling with us in our prosperity and in our adversity. (Cheers). The Congress and people of the United States of America have shown their deep sympathy for the misfortunes under which parts of this United Kingdom have been suffering, owing to the failure in part of the food of the people. (Cheers.) I rejoice in this manifes-

tation of sympathy and philanthropy. It shows that no remoteness of distance, no diversity of institutions, no records of separation, even though written in bloody characters, have obliterated that sympathy which a people sprung from the same stock with ourselves feel for us, recollecting that they speak the same language, that they read the same authors, that they acknowledge the inspiration of the same sacred truths, that they read and revere the precepts of the same religion, on the banks of the Hudson and the Mississippi, in the same book with us on the banks of the Thames and the Shannon. (Loud cheers.) I rejoice that they have shown this enlarged spirit of charity and liberality, and I am sure that, whatever may be the misfortunes of the present crisis, it is among the consoling circumstances of our lot, that it will tend to unite these two nations in bonds of brotherhood in time to come." (Loud and protracted cheers.) Lord John Russell concluded by saying that he would not deny that he expressed these sentiments for the purpose that his brethren in America might know that one who has the honor of holding high office in her Majesty's Councils, is deeply affected by the sympathy the people of the United States have shown.—*Correspondence of the Boston Atlas.*

ARCHBISHOP TILLOTSON.—There are some persons who are almost ashamed to own their parents, because they are poor, or in a low situation in life. We will, therefore give an example of the contrary, as displayed by the Dean of Canterbury, afterward Archbishop Tillotson. His father, who was a very plain Yorkshire man, approached the house where his son resided, and inquired whether 'John Tillotson' was at home. The servant, indignant at what he thought his insolence, drove him from the door: but the Dean, who was within, hearing the voice of his father; instead of embracing the opportunity afforded him, of going out and bringing in his father in a more private manner, came running out, exclaiming, in the presence of his astonished servants, 'it is my father;' and falling down on his knee, asked for his blessing. Obedience and love to our parents is a very distinct and important command of God, upon which he has promised his blessing, and his promises never fail.

Whale Hunt in the Shetland Isles.

"There is no scene more exciting in Shetland than a whale hunt. A shoal of valuable animals driven on shore contribute, by the produce of their blubber, light to our dreary nights, or many comforts to the poor island fishermen. The only species of whale which is thus stranded on the shores of these islands is the 'Delphinus Deductor' or 'Ca'ing Whale,' one of the lesser cetaces allied to the grampus and porpoise. The ca'ing whale, which is from eight to twenty feet long, and yields from twenty to sixty gallons of oil, is gregarious. Crowds of the species roam over the North Sea, always under the guidance of a leader, who would appear, however, to be equally fallible with many human leaders, for he often leads them far out of their proper walk. Every year, hundreds are stranded in Shetland, and also in the Faroe isles, where, it may be remarked, they are of more service, as the Faroese do not scruple to use their flesh for food. As a general account of our whale hunts might be comparatively uninteresting. I shall here give a description of a particular one, which occurred a few years ago, and was attended by circumstances of unusual animation. Then the scene was one of those snug-land-locked bays with which the Shetland isles abound, opening round the point of a small adjacent island into the North Sea; the time was a calm dull Winter day.

It was yet the morning twilight, when a messenger was sent to the proprietor of the land lying around the bay, to inform him that a shoal of whales were lying in the narrow sound leading to it. Not long did the laird indulge in sloth after this summons. In a very few minutes he was up and dressed, issuing orders all the while he performed his hasty toilet, and sending messengers to his tenants, desiring them to hasten to put themselves under his direction at the scene of action. In an incredibly short space of time many boats were gathered, and filled with men and boys, armed with weapons and instruments of noise as well as murder. Happy was he who could boast the possession of some rusty ancestral sword or cutlass, or a harpoon acquired in some Greenland voyage; and in absence of, or additional to all these, the boats were loaded with stones of all sizes, hastily gathered from the beach at starting. The

laird was provided with a heavy gun, loaded with two balls, a weapon which had been fatal to the lives of many seals and otters. The boats proceeded singly, and in silence, the men straining every nerve, in suppressed but bustling eagerness, in order to get between the whales and the expanse of the ocean. When all were collected in a close phalanx to which boats from neighbouring shores, and lairds from adjacent islands, were each moment gathering—the chase commenced in earnest. Every voice was raised in shouts and wild cries; showers of stones were flung by every hand not employed with the oars; kettles and saucepans were rattled, and various violins tuned, not so much to harmony, as to discord; all combined making a chaos of sounds intended to confuse the timid group, who were seen floundering in alarm till the water was like a boiling cauldron. The whales were thus slowly followed till they were driven fairly past the narrow sound or entrance, and into the bay; but here the prospect widening, it became rather a difficult matter to persuade the inhabitants of the deep that it would be best for them to run on shore. Boats continued to push from the land, terrifying still more, and scattering the herd; and strangers were not found willing to place themselves under due direction and generalship. The shoal separated in two divisions, and the hunters, in their eagerness, became less and less amenable to discipline, so that an unsuccessful termination of the adventure was greatly to be dreaded. The laird and his first lieutenant and factotum became entirely hoarse with bawling, and the poor persecuted whales made several desperate and dangerous efforts to break the barrier of boats that opposed their return to the ocean.

Thus passed many hours, during which the hunters had enough to do to keep themselves in safety, and prevent their prize from escaping. The boats were tossed by the motion of the whales in the water, as if it were agitated by a storm; the short day drew to its close, the afternoon twilight came; but though the sun's beams had been hidden through the day, a light breeze was now scattering the low clouds, to make way for the bright rising of the full moon; the wearied and anxious pursuers (many of whom had in their eager haste, left their homes without

breakfast) were now making up their minds to keep watch over their restless prey even through the night; so the laird having sent on shore for refreshments, rested from his exertions to snatch a hasty repast, and refresh his boatmen. While he was thus engaged, the herd of whales again united, and after a short interval of repose, suddenly made a simultaneous movement toward the shore. At this joyful sight, and the apparently near triumphant termination of their day's toil, hunger and fatigue were forgotten, and all were again engaged with oars and voices, stones and fiddles, in contributing to the wished for result; when the leader of the herd, a large and powerful male, feeling the water shallowing, turned back, apparently resolved to make one desperate attempt for freedom and safety. His companions followed, taking their way with the swiftness of lightning along the shore, seeking an outlet, which undoubtedly they would have soon found, from the position of the boats and the breadth of the bay: but, at this moment of breathless suspense the laird, whose powerfully manned boat lay nearest to the direction the whales were taking, sped like an arrow to meet the poor prisoners, thus struggling for release. Vain struggle! When within a few yards, the laird raised his unerring gun, and fired at the leader of the herd. Stunned and blinded, the poor animal turned from the direction of safety, and despairingly, or unwittingly, ran directly on shore, just below the proprietor's dwelling. The whole herd of two hundred blindly followed, as is their invariable habit. The hunters, of course, rushed after them, and as the boats touched the ground, the men jumped to their waists in the water, in the midst of their helpless prey, who were dispatched with knives and harpoons without mercy, till all appeared wading in blood rather than water. The laird's factotum was a man of extraordinary strength and stature, and, armed with a powerful family sword of his master's, stabbed and cut by moonlight till his athletic arm dropped from weariness, his whole person dripping with the blood of the slaughtered whales, and his brain fairly delirious with excitement and exertion. Ere midnight the whole herd lay dead on the beach, those which had been killed in the water being dragged above the flood mark.

Next morning, the laird and the as-

sessors of the booty met in solemn conclave, while an eager and noisy, though respectful multitude, were gathered around the bodies of the slain. In such cases the capture is divided into three parts. One part belongs to the admiral, as crown dues, another to the proprietor of the shore on which the whales are stranded, while the third is divided among those who have assisted in the chase. But the admiral now, I believe, waives his right in favor of the captors. On the occasion I have been alluding to, the division was first effected justly, and to the satisfaction of all, and then commenced the operation of fleecing, or cutting off the blubber, which is the only part of the species of whale here considered of any use.

Some of the participators chose to carry away their own shares, while others were happy if the landlord would take theirs, the value to be placed to their credit against rent-day. I have mentioned that the flesh of the ca'ing whale is eaten by the natives of the Faroe islands. It is not necessity that compels them to this, for they have abundance of other sorts of animal food—sheep, wild fowl in profusion, and then superfluous foals, which last are said to be palatable food—but the whale's flesh is considered to be nutritious, and is much to their liking. Having heard of this custom, I resolved to taste the flesh of one of the above-mentioned whales. A young one was selected from which some steaks were cut, and, without other preparation, broiled. The flesh looked and tasted exactly like beef; rather coarser than our delicate Shetland beef, indeed, but with no peculiar flavor or odor to distinguish it from ox flesh, or to betray its origin. Prejudice was found the only drawback; for several persons—men, women and children—partook of it with relish, who did not know it to be other than beef—yet no sooner were most of them informed of what their repast consisted, than no persuasion could induce them to finish what remained; so much are we the creatures of early prejudice and prepossession. It is not more than fifty years since the flesh of the seal was eagerly eaten by the Shetlanders, as it still is by the Faroese and Greenlanders. I have tasted it too, and found it much the same, but still more delicate than the whale's. Could the prejudice against whale's flesh be

overcome, what a welcome supply of food would the carcasses prove, which now are left to rot on the beaches, or else to sink in the sea, while the natives of Faroe never suffer from famine as the Shetlanders have done for a succession of years, from failure of their crops and fishing. A more extraordinary prejudice of the Shetlanders leads them obstinately to refuse as food all sorts of shell-fish, even in the extremity of death from want. Lobsters and crabs, of large size and fine quality, as well as many of the smaller crustacea, no Shetland peasant or fisherman will ever taste; and, when others do, they look on with loathing and abhorrence.—*Eng. Journal.*

ADVANTAGES ENJOYED BY MEN OF SCIENCE IN FRANCE.—The naturalists and other scientific men of Paris have great advantages over those of London. The French government devotes a large sum of money annually to the support of scientific and literary institutions in the metropolis. Public lectures on every subject may be attended gratis; the most complete museums and libraries are of the easiest access. The social meetings at the houses of distinguished individuals, or of public bodies, such, for example, as those of the Baron Cuvier, the Baron Ferrussac, the Institute, the Athenæum, &c., are frequent; and the intercourse at such meetings is of real use to literary men, because differences of worldly circumstances enters into them for little or nothing. It is not to be wondered therefore, that, with superior native vivacity and acuteness, and all those opportunities, the French Philosophers should be among the first in the world.—*Mag. Nat. Hist.*

THE ROYAL LIBRARY, PARIS.—You pass through this room, where scarcely anybody lingers, and enter the second, where are placed the 'editiones principes,' and other volumes printed in the fifteenth century. Such copies of such rare, precious, magnificent, and long-sought after impressions! There stands the first 'Homer,' unshorn by the binder; a little above is the first Roman edition of Eustathius's Commentary upon that poet, in gorgeous red morocco, but printed upon vellum! A Budaeus Greek Lexicon (Francis the First's own copy), also upon vellum. The Virgils, Ovids, Plinies—and, above all, the Bibles;—but I check

myself, in order to conduct you regularly through the apartments ere you sit down with me before each volume I may open. In this second room are two small tables, rarely occupied, but at one of which I was stationed by the kind offices of M. Van Prael, for 14 days, with almost every thing that was exquisite and rare in the old book way, behind and before me. You pass into the third room. Here is the grand rendezvous of readers. Six circular, or rather oval tables, each capable of accommodating 12 students, and each generally occupied by the full number, strike your eye in a very pleasing manner in the centre of this apparently interminable vista of printed volumes.—*Extract from Dibdin's Tour.*

OLD STATUE OF WILLIAM PITT.—This interesting relic of colonial times, says the Journal of Commerce, has again been brought to light. In 1763, by an act of the Legislature of New York, Sir Charles Baker and Robert Charles, Esq., were authorised to pay for the statues of George III. and William Pitt, previously ordered. That of his Majesty was placed in the Bowling Green, and Mr. Pitt's was set up in Wall street.

In 1773, the political iconoclasts of this city showed such a disposition to deface and destroy these statues, that a law was passed imposing a fine of £500 currency on any who should attempt to injure them.

It appears that Gen. Washington, at a subsequent period, while in possession of the town, showed his respect for the arts by issuing a general order with a similar purpose.

Pitt's statue, however, disappeared for many years, and was next discovered in the Corporation Yard, deprived of its head, which was a separate piece of marble, and fastened to the trunk by an iron rod.

It next came into the possession of Ball Hughes, the sculptor, and afterwards was set up in a small garden in the rear of a store in Water street.

Recently, during extensive repairs of that building, it was thrown down and covered with rubbish, and now it has been removed to the Fifth Ward Hotel, where it is to be placed, at the corner of Franklin and West Broadway. It is even now an object of great curiosity.

BOTANICAL DEPARTMENT.

Indigenous and acclimated fruits of Cuba.—"Anona cherimolia."—The Cherimoya is a large, clumsily shaped fruit, irregularly conical, having the pointed end opposite the stalk; that is to say, the reverse of that of the pear. Some specimens are nearly globular.

"When ripe, the skin of this fruit is yellow, with or without a blush of red. Cut or break it open, for it is quite soft, and you come to a white, creamy pulp, filled with black seeds, resembling those of the watermelon, smaller, but not so flat. The consistence of this pulp is that of a soft custard, or a rich and smooth ice-cream; and it tastes as much like an ice-cream, very slightly flavoured with strawberry, as any thing I can think of, though I do not mean to say that it is as good. By some, who have eaten the cherimoya in South America, it is vaunted as being superior to the pine-apple. Others, however, who have also eaten it there, do not think so much of it, and assert that a fine pear is to be preferred to it. Very probably it is better in certain parts of South America than in the West Indies, but to compare it anywhere with the princely pine-apple must be nonsense. It is, nevertheless, as I have seen and tasted it, a luscious fruit, of which one may easily become fond. It is eaten with a spoon, the skin of the fruit forming the custard cup; and there is more food in one fruit than any but a hungry man would care to eat at once.

"The tree is about the size of a peach tree, and the foliage is also like the leaves of the peach, and exhibits the scattered appearance which is common to the Anona genus. The fruit stalk is thick and fleshy."

"Cárica papaya.—The Papaya, or Papaw. This is but an ordinary fruit for eating, but it grows in a picturesque manner, and belongs to a plant which in several respects is quite remarkable.

"The tree has a straight, slender trunk, marked with parallel rings or scores, like many of the palms, and rises to the height of about twenty feet. At the top, is a broad tuft of palmated leaves, resembling those of the Palma christi, or castor bean, very large, and held by long stiff foot-stalks, which branch out horizontally, like the sticks of an umbrella. Immediately under this canopy, just where the foot-

stalks diverge from the tree, the fruit, of the shape and size of cantelopes, are clustered, regularly and closely round the trunk, to the number of twenty or thirty, and packed together like a bunch of grapes. Grainger compares the cluster to a necklace. The tree grows very rapidly, and the trunk is spongy and hollow, so that in some of the islands it is common to say of a specious, hypocritical person, that he is 'as hollow as a papaw.'

"When ripe, the fruit is yellow, or yellow striped with green, and smooth on the outside. The flesh is also yellow, like a muskmelon, and tastes like a poor specimen of that fruit, or like a ripe cucumber. The interior contains a large quantity of oval seeds, of the shape of pepper-corns, rough, black, and tasting like pepper-grass, or the seeds of the nasturtium. The two kinds of flowers grow on separate trees, and it is therefore only on one kind that fruit is to be found.

"The papaw flourishes in both the Indies. St. Pierre gives it a conspicuous place in his tale of Paul and Virginia; causing his heroine to plant some of its seeds, one of which produces fruit in three years. Grainger characterizes it in his poem, as the

'— quick papaw, whose top is necklaced
round
With numerous rows of parti-colored fruit.'

"But the most remarkable circumstance connected with this tree, is the property ascribed to its juices of acting powerfully on animal matter, so as to make tough or newly killed meat perfectly tender. It is asserted, on good authority, that this singular effect is produced by washing the meat with the milky juice, or by mixing a portion of the juice with the water in which the meat is to be boiled, or even by hanging the meat on the tree, and thus exposing it to its exhalations. Living animals, moreover, are intenerated by eating the spoils of this persuasive and affecting plant. 'Even old hogs and patriarchal cocks and hens, if fed upon the leaves and fruit, are made in a few hours as tender as young pigs and pullets.' So says Burnet, in his 'Outlines of Botany.' The juice has been preserved and sent to Europe, where it has been subjected to chemical analysis, and found to bear a close

affinity itself with animal matter; as is the case also with some of the fungi.

"I was unacquainted with these facts when in Cuba, and therefore did not verify them, and do not state them on my own responsibility; but I have no reason to call them in question."

"*Chrysophyllum cainito*.—It is called by the Spaniards *cainito*, and by the French *cainite*; a pretty name, which ought to supersede the English *Star-apple*. It belongs to the order *Sapotaceæ*, and, like its congeners, the *Achras* and *Lucuma*, abounds in a milky juice.

"The tree is spreading, and of a moderate size. The leaves are dark green above, and downy beneath. The flowers are in small bunches, of a purple hue.

"It is one of the handsomest of fruits, both without and within. One of the varieties is of a regularly conical or top shape, the stalk being at the large end or base of the cone, with a smooth, polished, dark purple skin, about the size of a large apple. The skin, though tolerably thick, is tender. If you cut through the fruit transversely, there is the figure of a star in the centre or core, just as there is, only less decidedly, in our apple and pear; and from this appearance it has derived its English name of *star-apple*. Broad, plump, black seeds, flattened on the sides, with a scar as in the *sapotilla*, regularly disposed, and surrounded by a tough gelatinous substance, form the nucleus of the central star.

"Nothing can be richer than the appearance of the pulp itself. It consists of innumerable fibres, of a sumptuous purple color, intermingled with veins of a thick white cream, which is continually oozing out. It may be likened to a mixture of strawberries and cream, and, though it possesses not the high flavor of that compound, it is very pleasant, sweet and good. But it should be eaten fully ripe, in order to be properly appreciated.

"I have described the purple conical variety. There is another variety, which is like it in all respects, except that it is globular instead of conical in form. I have also seen two varieties, one of which is globular, the other conical, which have a green skin and a white pulp, and are smaller than the purple varieties. There may be other varieties still, some of which may deserve to be ranked as species."

"*Citrus aurantium*.—*Naranja* in Spanish; *Orange* in French and English. All sweet oranges are reckoned by botanists as varieties only of this one species. It is not indigenous in Cuba, but the variety which grows there, and which goes under the name of the *Havana* or *Cuba orange*, is one of the very finest of its kind. It is to be remarked, also, that of this variety there are sub-varieties; so that in an orange grove, where all the fruit is rich and sweet, there will probably be two or three trees which will be your favorites, on account of the superior flavor of their produce. Observe, too, that the blossom end of an orange, or end opposite the stalk, is the sweetest; and where this fruit is in such plenty, that quantities are decaying under the trees, you can well afford to eat only the blossom end, and cast away the rest.

"The orange, certainly, has not so high and exquisite a flavor as the pineapple; but its sweet and healthful juice is so abundant and so refreshing, it retains its spirit and soundness so long, and offers itself so liberally to all classes, in all climates, that I am disposed to think it the most valuable, not only of West Indian, but of all fruits."

"*Jambosa vulgaris*, or *Domestica*. The Spanish name is *Manzana de rosa*, or *Poma rosa*; the French, *Pomme Rose*, or *Jam-rose*; the English, *Rose apple*.

"The tree is one of the most beautiful in Cuba, large and spreading, affording a fine shade. The leaves are ample, oval, pointed, firm and glossy. The blossoms are large, white, and of pleasant odor, and their stamens are so long and numerous that they look like tassels. They are gigantic and fragrant myrtle blossoms.

"The fruit is round, or oval, and carinated; has a smooth skin, and is cream-colored without and within. The pulp is of rather a firm consistence, sweet to the taste, and possessing a decided odor of roses, from which last circumstance it derives its common name. It contains one or two seeds. These are round, with a rusty coat and a green meat, which is also of a rosy fragrance, but is said to be poisonous, or at least very unhealthy. The fruit is eaten when fresh, and, though it is palatable, is regarded as being somewhat indigestible. When preserved, it is quite nice, and as innocent as most preserves.—*Mag. of Horticult.*

POETRY.

The Poor and Rich.

BY JAS. R. LOWELL.

The rich man's son inherits lands,
And piles of brick and stone and gold,
And he inherits soft white hands,
And tender flesh that fears the cold,
Nor dares to wear a garment old;
A heritage it seems to me,
One would not care to hold in fee.

The rich man's son inherits cares,
The bank may break, the factory burn,
Some breath may burst his bubble shares
And soft white hands would scarcely earn
A living that would suit his turn;
A heritage, it seems to me,
One would not care to hold in fee.

What does the poor man's son inherit?
Stout muscles and a sinewy heart;
A hardy frame, a hardier spirit!
King of two hands, he does his part
In every useful toil and art;
A heritage it seems to me,
A king might wish to hold in fee.

What does the poor man's son inherit?
Wishes o'erjoyed with humble things,
A rank adjudged by toil-worn merit,
Content that from employment springs,
A heart that in his labor sings;
A heritage it seems to me,
A king might wish to hold in fee.

What does the poor man's son inherit?
A patience learned by being poor,
Courage, if sorrow come, to bear it;
A fellow feeling that is sure
To make the outcast bless his door;
A heritage, it seems to me,
A king might wish to hold in fee.

Oh, rich man's son there is a toil
That with all others level stands;
Large charity doth never soil,
But only whitens soft white hands;
This is the best crop from thy lands;
A heritage it seems to me,
Worth being rich to hold in fee.

Oh, poor man's son, scorn not thy state;
There is worse weariness than thine,
In merely being rich and great;
Work only makes the soul to shine,
And makes rest fragrant and benign;
A heritage it seems to me,
Worth being poor to hold in fee.

Both, heirs to some six feet of sod,
Are equal in the earth at last—
Both children of the same dear God,
Prove title to your heirship vast,
By record of a well filled past!
A heritage it seems to me,
Well worth a life to hold in fee.

ENIGMA, No. 44.

Je suis en France et dans Paris,
Je suis surtout en Angleterre;
Je suis dans l'air et dans la terre,
Je ne suis point dans ce pays.
On me cherche en Asie,
Mais on me trouve en Barbarie;
Je suis le terme de l'amour,
Et le principe de la rage;
On me voit toujours dans l'orage,
Et je finis avec le jour.

[Variétés Littéraires.]

French Proverbs, Bon mots, &c.—

25. Rien ne surprend le philosophe: la surprise ne sied qu'au vulgaire.

Translation of French Proverbs, &c., p. 416.

—21. Absence is the touchstone of our affections.

22. Nature is a divine enigma, the word for which philosophers have in vain sought, for three thousand years.

23. The wind of fortune blows in squalls; sometimes it sends good and evil things one by one: sometimes it makes them come down like hail. She ill-treats you: hope; she favours you; rejoice only in moderation—troubles are not far off. Does it rain troubles? Patiently let the deluge fall—It is over, go on, go on fast.

24. Routine is the rule of fools.

TO COLOR COTTON BLACK.—Put clear cold water into a tub sufficient to cover the goods, then put into it two and a half ounces of chloride of lime, then put in the goods half an hour—take out and wring, then fill a tub a second time with clear water, and put into it two ounces of sulphate of iron, put in the goods ten minutes, then take out and wring, then put the sulphate of iron water into your kettle, and as much clean water as will cover the goods, then put in four ounces of the extract of logwood, one and a half ounce of the sulphate of copper, then boil in the goods from fifteen to thirty minutes.

NOTE.—After coloring dip the cotton goods 2 or 3 times in the chloride of lime water, then wash well in hot strong soap suds and water.

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